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PLACE OF THE WELSH

IN THE

HISTORY OF BRITAIN.

BY

PROFESSOR BOYD DAWKINS, M.A., F.R.S.,

HON. FELLOW OF JESUS COLLEGE, OXFORD.

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1889.

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BY
William
PROFESSOR, BOYD DAWKINS, M.A., F.R.S.,
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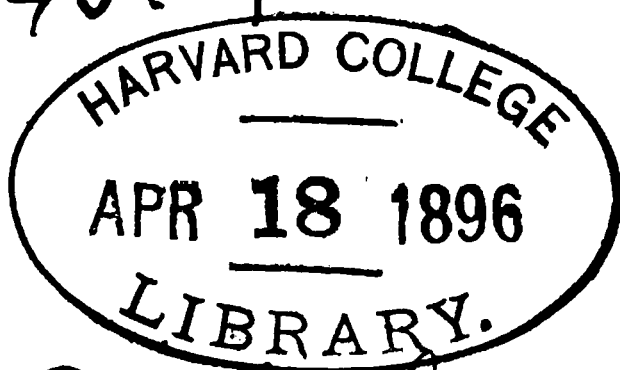
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THE PLACE OF THE WELSH IN THE HISTORY OF BRITAIN.

I.

ANCESTRY OF THE SMALL DARK WELSH.

I.—Introductory.

THE questions, "who are the Welsh and what is their place in the history of Britain?" are of great interest in themselves, and demand more than a passing notice at a time when it is attempted to raise an antagonism between the races inhabiting the British Islands, and when it is

The principal authorities used in the following articles are Beddoe's *Races of Britain*, Dawkins' *Early Man in Britain*, Skene's *The Four Ancient Books of Wales*, Rhys' *Celtic Britain*, Green's *The History of the English People*, Giraldus Cambrensis *Itinerarium Kambriæ*, and *de Rebus a se Gestis*, edit. Brewer (Rolls), and the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (Rolls).

urged that there is some essential difference between them which renders it necessary for them to live further apart from each other than they have done for many centuries. It is assumed that there is something in the nature of those populations which are called Celtic that prevents them from living under the same system of laws as those enjoyed by the populations termed English; and this assumption is founded on the idea that there is but little in common between the Celt on the one hand and the English on the other. As a matter of fact, they are both mixed races, divided from one another mainly by their speech, and composed of the same ethnological elements, with some predominating in one place and some in another. The main difference between them merely consists in the varying proportion in which these elements are mingled in different places. I propose to deal with these questions, so far as they relate to the Welsh, from the point of view offered by the most recent researches into their

history, and those contributions which have been made to our knowledge of the people by the sciences of ethnology and archæology. It will be seen that the Welsh have played no ignoble part in the history of these islands, and that some of them are descended from those who in remote ages introduced the first rudiments of civilisation, not merely into these islands, but into the whole of Europe, from the Rhine to the Straits of Gibraltar and from the Alps to the shores of the Atlantic.

2.—*The Small Dark Welsh.*

The Welsh, as their name implies, are simply the inhabitants of Britain, strangers to the English invaders. It would be absurd to expect that the rude warriors who pushed the inhabitants of Roman Britain before them to the west into Wales, Cumbria, and West Wales (Devon and Cornwall) would have drawn any subtle ethnological distinctions. To the destroyers of

the Roman Empire, their foes in Britain were Brit-Welsh, and in Gaul Gall-Welsh, under which heads were included without any distinction the races which they conquered. It is clear, however, from the pages of Cæsar and Tacitus that at the time of the Roman conquest there were at least two distinct peoples in Britain—the tall, fair-haired, blue-eyed Celt, identical with the Gallic tribes, and the dark-complexioned, wavy-haired South Welshmen (Silures), who are compared by Tacitus to the Iberi of Spain. This comparison is now amply justified by a visit to most Welsh towns on a market day—say Denbigh or St. Asaph—where the small dark Welshman is to be seen identical in everything but dress and speech with the small dark Basque of the Western Pyrenees, both French and Spanish. We need not, however, go so far as the Pyrenees to find people identical with the small dark Welsh. The small dark Irish of the south-west of Ireland, the small dark Highlander of Scotland, and the dark inhabitants of Devon

and Cornwall are physically of the same race. The recent researches of Beddoe prove also that the small dark Yorkshireman and Derbyshireman are of the same small dark stock.

On the Continent we find this same race still in Brittany, and in various districts in the valley of the Loire, as is clearly proved by Dr. Broca's maps, until at last we come to the Basques of the Pyrenees, and the small dark population of Spain. There is no longer any room for doubt that the small dark Welshman is a fragment of a people formerly widely extended over Europe, but now broken up into "ethnological islands" by subsequent invasions.

And, further, the fact must be accepted that the language which they spoke is now represented by the Basque tongue, which has so long baffled the philologists, and which is not only non-Aryan but pre-Aryan. It may be objected to this, that hitherto we have sought in vain in Welsh for traces of Basque, and that Welsh is a purely Celtic tongue. The objection finds its

answer in the fact that the Ethiopian can change his language but not his skin, and that within the present century Welsh as a language has perished in Cornwall, a part of the old West Wales, and now only survives in the dales of Cumbria in the tongue of shepherds counting their sheep. On the Continent the Basque tongue itself is only spoken in an isolated and small district, and has disappeared from the valley of the Garonne "by the dissolving influence of time," to quote the happy phrase of Dr. Broca. The language has gone without any corresponding or equivalent change in the people.

The small dark Basque or Iberic race, as it may be called, is proved by an appeal to history to have been pushed steadily to the West by the invasion of the Celts, and, later, of the Germanic tribes. In the days of Augustus their domain in Gaul extended as far north as the Loire, and was bounded to the north and the east by the land of the Celts (Celtica). When the Romans

conquered Spain they occupied the whole of the western parts, the Celts possessing the eastern, and the mixed people, the Celtiberians, the middle. Celt and Iberian alike were pushed further to the west by the various Germanic tribes who poured into the Roman Empire, and in Britain ultimately found a refuge in Cornwall, Wales, Cumbria, and the Scotch Highlands, leaving, however, behind them sufficient numbers to be easily recognised in the present population of England.

3.—Their former Range over British Isles and the Continent.

There is, however, clear proof that the Iberic element in the Welsh and Scotch peoples formerly possessed the whole of the British Isles in the remote period defined by archaeologists as the age of Polished Stone, or the Neolithic age. The numerous skeletons found in tombs and caves throughout the length and

breadth of these islands prove that they were the only folk in these islands before metals were known, and when the polished stone axe was one of the most important of their implements. Their rude huts, mostly sunk into the ground, abound, and their camps, made of ramparts of earth and rude stones, crown nearly all the commanding positions near good tracts of land, and are very well engineered so as to sweep the ground within reach of slingstone or arrow. Similar remains attest their former dominion over the whole of Gaul and Spain.

4.—Their Civilisation.

The various remains, too, found in their habitations and tombs mark their civilisation. They were the first spinners and weavers, and the first to manufacture linen. They were the first potters and the first miners; for they worked extensive flint mines in Sussex and Suffolk. They manufactured flint axes whole-

sale for purposes of commerce. They were the first to navigate the rivers and seas in canoes hollowed by the axe and by fire. They introduced the domestic animals into this country—the small Scotch and Welsh cattle, the goat, the horned sheep, the hog, the horse, and the dog. To them also we owe the introduction of wheat, and barley, and flax, and the arts of gardening. In a word, they must be looked upon as the introducers of civilisation, not merely into the British Isles, but into the whole of Europe north of the Alps and west of the Rhine. Their arts are still with us, and their domestic animals and cultivated plants have merely been improved by long culture and careful selection in the long ages which separate them from our own time. Throughout the age of Polished Stone they were the only race which has left any mark behind in the British Isles.

A singularly conclusive proof that the Iberic race of which the small dark Welsh are a fragment were formerly acquainted only with stone

for cutting purposes is proved by the following words in modern Basque:—

Axe: Aizcora, a stone lifted on high.

Pick: Aitzurra, a stone to tear asunder.

Knife: Aizttoa, a little stone.

Scissors: Aizturrac, small stones for tearing asunder.

These names applied to steel cutlery, point back to the remote age when the ancestors of the Basques were in the neolithic stage of civilisation described above.

It is clear from the facts quoted above that the Welsh of to-day are a mixed people, and that the Iberic element in the Welsh population is the oldest. If any people on purely racial grounds deserve special consideration, surely it is these original possessors of the soil who have been displaced by Celt, Englishman, Dane, Norman, and Fleming. If the Celt cry “hands off” to the English, with still greater reason should the small dark inhabitants of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland cry “hands off” to the

Celt. This is the logical *reductio ad absurdum* of the doctrine that different races require different political treatment simply because they are different races. The other elements in the Welsh people will be dealt with in a future article.

II.

THE INVASION BY THE CELTS.

1.—The Celtic Invasion of the Continent.

In a preceding article the small dark element in the Welsh people has been proved to be a fragment of the Iberian race that occupied the whole of Britain, France, and Spain in the remote age of Polished Stone. It was a race to which we owe the introduction of civilisation and of the arts from the East, and not only of domestic animals and of corn and cultivated fruits, but even of such familiar weeds as the Cretan catchfly and the blue cornflower. It was a race not only pre-Aryan, but non-Aryan, and it belongs to an ill-defined section of mankind found in early times in Sicily, and represented now by the Berbers and Kabyles, and the aborigines of the Canary Islands. We

must now consider the second or Celtic element, and take up the story where it was dropped in these columns last Monday. The Iberic population in the British Isles was preserved in all its purity from contact with other races by "the silver streak" during the whole of the age of Polished Stone. On the Continent, however, a new race appeared, taller, and contrasting physically with the Iberic aborigines. Their heads were round, their features coarse, their eyebrows overhanging, their cheekbones high, and the lower part of their faces projected beyond a vertical line dropped from the forehead, giving the character termed "snouty" by Professor Huxley. They invaded France from the side of the Rhine, and occupied the whole country from the Atlantic shore of Brittany to the Alps, and poured down to the Pyrenees, taking possession of the whole region between the Upper Garonne and the Mediterranean. In Spain, too, they conquered the whole of the southern region, and penetrated as far as the Straits of Gibraltar. To their west

lay the main body of the Iberic people, but imbedded in their midst here and there the possessors of the soil held their own, and even now are still represented in the French army returns by the small dark conscripts. This invasion is clearly proved to have taken place in the age of Polished Stone by numerous discoveries in tombs from Belgium in the north, all through France, and as far as the extreme south of Spain.

The next question for us to meet is, who were these invaders, and what mark have they left in the present population? At the beginning of the history of Spain we find the Celts in the possession of the south-east, the Iberians in the north-west, and between the two the mixed Celt-Iberians. The same distribution of people is also met with on the French side of the Pyrenees, the Iberian being in the west and the Celt in the east, and a mixed race being sandwiched between them resulting from their inter-marriage. It is obvious, therefore, that those

tall invaders of the lands on the west side of the Rhine are either identical with the Celts or Gauls of history, or, to say the least, so closely related to them in tongue and physique as to leave no mark behind by which they can be distinguished. They were the vanguard of the great Aryan army which ultimately conquered the whole of Western Europe. They belong to the race that turned the Etruscans out of the region of Northern Italy, and seized the whole of the valley of the Po, at the beginning of the fourth century before Christ; who a little later nearly destroyed the Roman power, and who offered a fierce resistance in Gaul to Cæsar in the middle of the first century before the Christian era. They are described by Roman writers as tall, with light hair and light complexion, and with fierce blue eyes. It is a point of great historical importance for us to know that these Aryan invaders were masters of Gaul and of Southern Spain in the remote age, when the Etruscans were the great power in Italy, and their influence was being felt north

of the Alps along the trade routes which had been opened up through the Alpine passes.

2.—The Celtic Invasion of Britain.

The Celts, then, were masters of Northern France in the age of Polished Stone, and the invasion of Britain was retarded probably for centuries by the barrier of the Channel. It was not until the bronze weapons, and higher civilisation generally, began to penetrate north of the Alps, among the Celtic tribes, that the Celts ventured to invade the Iberian dwellers in Britain, who were up to that time unacquainted with bronze, and who, therefore, were not so well armed as their enemies. The polished stone axe and the stone-tipped spear would offer but a poor defence against the battle axe of bronze, the bronze spear, and the bronze dagger, and especially if the better weapons were in the hands of stronger and taller men, such as the Celts.

The conquest of France and of Spain in the Stone Age was repeated in these islands in the

Bronze Age. The Celtic invaders have left their mark throughout the length and breadth of the land, not merely in their tombs, and the arts of bronze which they introduced, but also in their rude stone circles, which are to be found almost everywhere. They have left their mark not only in Britain itself, but even in the remotest districts of Ireland, in the Isle of Man, and in the lonely islands in the Atlantic off the West of Scotland. Stonehenge and Abury are their grandest monuments, temples in which they worshipped the great Unknown, and around which they buried their dead. The Iberic population of Britain was, however, not destroyed. It still survived in Yorkshire and in Wilts in the Bronze Age. In the district between the river Dee and the Clwyd, some two years ago I found in the same tomb, belonging to the Bronze Age, the Celt and Iberian resting together. They had evidently been buried in a family vault. In this part of Wales, therefore, the fusion of these two races

dates as far back as the Bronze Age, and probably many centuries before the Roman soldiers landed in Britain.

3.—The Celtic Civilisation.

The Celtic conquerors of Britain introduced the higher civilisation which necessarily follows from the use of metals. At first the bronze weapons and implements were imported from the Continent, and afterwards were manufactured in the country. The trader came first with his wares, and after him followed the bronze smith, whose stock in trade has been discovered in many places in this country, in Norwich among others. The pottery became better, and cups even of amber and gold were used. In harvesting, the ears of corn were cut short off with bronze reaping hooks. In the forests the clearings grew larger than ever they were before, and the ring of the metal axe proclaimed that the land was passing into the hands of the farmer. The axe, indeed, may

truly be said to have done more for the good of mankind and for the advance of civilisation than the sword. During the Celtic dominion in Britain a marked development is traceable in the arts. The bronze implements and weapons became better, bronze swords were introduced from abroad, and various articles and various designs found their way from Italy as far to the west as Ireland. The trade routes to the South over the Continent became more developed, and the highly prized metal work of the Etruscans was exchanged for the various productions of Celtic Britain. Iron also in the course of time superseded bronze, and a trade was carried on not only with the Celts of Northern France but with those of the valley of the Loire. A coinage also was established in rude imitation of the coins of Alexander the Great and his father Philip, and an intercourse was kept up with the Greeks of Marseilles, to whom we owe the first clear account of the inhabitants of Britain.

4.—The Goidels and the Brythons.

The testimony of language throws great light on the Celtic conquest of Britain. There were, according to Professor Rhys, two distinct invasions. The ancestors of the folk who speak Gaelic—the Scotch Highlander, the Manx, and the Erse—whom he terms Goidels or Gaels, were the first to arrive. Long ages afterwards the Brythons, who have left their name not only in Britain but in Brittany, speaking a different dialect, which forms the basis of modern Welsh, invaded the Goidels, and introduced a tongue which was spoken from the Firth of Forth to the English Channel. It is possible that this second invasion took place at the beginning of the Iron Age, and it may be connected with the invasion of Gaul by the Belgic tribes. All these three peoples are, however, to be looked on as Celtic, and they were probably as closely related to one another as Dane to Angle, or Frank to Goth, as being of the same *physique*, and differ-

ing but slightly in language. It is no wonder that the Iberic tongue has perished in Wales, when we see that even the vastly more modern Goidelic has been swallowed up by the Brythonic. At the time of the Roman conquest the whole of the British Isles was inhabited by a Celtic and Iberic population mingled together, as in Gaul and Spain. How far and to what extent this Celt-Iberic population was rolled back to the west and to the north by subsequent invasions must be reserved for further notice.

III.

ROMAN BRITAIN AND THE GROWTH OF
ENGLAND.*1.—The Character of the Roman Conquest.*

We must now consider the inhabitants of Britain under the Romans, and the effect of the Germanic invasion in driving the ancestors of the Welsh into the area of Wales.

Two distinct races were in the British Isles at the time of the Roman conquest, the Iberic, who were descended from ancestors who arrived with their flocks and herds in the age of Polished Stone; and their Celtic conquerors, who introduced a new civilisation from the Continent in the Bronze Age, and who occupied by far the greater part of the land. To these we must add the Caledonians in Scotland, a large-limbed race with red hair, considered by

Tacitus to be of Germanic origin, and identified by Dr. Beddoe with the tall, red-haired people of Athole and Mar. With these last we have nothing to do in this place. The tribes of South-eastern Britain in the days of Cæsar were, as might be expected from their contact with Gaul, and those of Cornwall from their intercourse with Greek traders, more highly civilised than the other Britains. Coins were used as far north as Yorkshire and throughout the middle and southern districts, and a brisk commerce was carried on with the Continent. It was not only the aid which the Britons gave to their allies in Gaul that provoked the Roman invasion and conquest, but the gold, the tin, the iron, the pearls, and the corn.

The Roman civilisation rapidly followed the Roman arms into Britain, and, although felt to a slight degree between the invasion of Cæsar (B.C. 55) and the conquest under Claudius (A.D. 43), was carried by Suetonius (A.D. 58) and Agricola (A.D. 78) as far west as the Irish

Channel, and as far to the north as the Highlands of Scotland. The military occupation of the country led to the building of great fortresses at York to overawe the north, at Chester (Deva) to command the northern parts of Wales and the plain of Cheshire and Lancashire, and at Caerleon-on-Usk to keep guard over the Silures, who offered a more stubborn resistance than any other British tribes. These fortresses were connected with a vast number of less important military stations, and among them Manchester, by a network of roads similar in their effect in developing the resources of the country to the railways of the nineteenth century. The strong central power which put an end to the rivalry between petty chieftains turned the attention of the Britons from intertribal war to agriculture, and Britain became one of the most important grain-producing provinces in the Empire. The influence of Rome penetrated into every part of the country south of the Highlands, and

Roman villas, with their tessellated pavements, baths, arcades, and statues, originally designed for the sunny clime of Italy, studded the country from Northumberland to the English Channel, and as far to the west as the shores of Wales. The hot springs of Buxton and Bath became fashionable spas with ornate buildings. Latin was not only the official tongue, but, according to Rhys, probably was the ordinary speech throughout the eastern and south-eastern districts. In a word, Britain became a province in the same sense as Gaul and Spain, and became Christian like the rest of the Empire by the edict of the Emperor Constantine. While all these changes in the civilisation of the Britons were due to the Romans, there were no corresponding changes in the ethnology important enough to be marked in the existing population. There must have been a large immigration of foreigners into Britain under the Romans, but all traces of them have been lost during the anarchy which pre-

vailed during the fifth century after Christ, and during the fierce warfare of more than two centuries between the Britons and the English.

2.—*The English Conquest.*

The withdrawal of the Roman legions from Britain in A.D. 409 in the vain attempt to defend Italy from Alaric was rapidly followed by the conquest of Gaul by the Goths and the severance of the province of Britain from the rest of the Roman Empire ; and by its exposure to the incursions of the Picts and Scots and of the Angles, Jutes, Saxons, and other Germanic tribes. In the struggle—two centuries long—which followed the landing of the three keels in the Island of Thanet, in A.D. 449, the tide of conquest set steadily to the west, and the borders of England were enlarged until they reached the shore of the Irish Sea and the Bristol Channel. The character of the conquest is eloquently described by Gildas by the metaphor,

that the flame kindled in the East raged over the whole land until it flared red over the Western Sea. The Roman civilisation and the Celtic Christianity of Britain were replaced by the Germanic simplicity and the worship of Thor and Odin. The cities, with some few exceptions, such as Exeter and Carlisle, and perhaps York, were destroyed, and the inhabitants either driven away or enslaved. Bath, the fashionable spa in Roman Britain, became a heap of ruins so lonely that it became a nesting place for wild ducks. Uriconium, "the white town in the valley," as it is called by a British poet, defended by walls which enclosed a space more than double that of Roman London, with forum and theatre, "was left a heap of blackened ruins where the singer wandered through halls he had known in happier days, the halls of its chief Kyndylan, 'without light, without fire, without song'—their stillness broken only by the eagle's scream, the eagle 'who has swallowed fresh drink heart's blood of Kyndylan the fair.'"

The lofty ruin standing now in the corn lands on the banks of the Severn, between Shrewsbury and the Wrekin, and the broken columns of white sandstone, the pavements, and the fire-stained stones, revealed in the excavations, carry home to the mind even of the casual visitor the justice of this picture of destruction drawn by the pen of John Richard Green.

3.—*The Story of the Welsh Retreat.*

The story of the English conquest taken almost wholly from the English point of view needs no fresh telling. The story, however, of the Welsh retreat and of the events which happened to them in the interval between the departure of the Romans and the Norman conquest still remains to be told from the Welsh point of view. It is clear from the researches of Rhys and of Skene that one result of the English invasion was to be seen in the banding together of the Celtic Brythons and Goidels and the Iberic

inhabitants of Roman Britain from the Highlands down to the Bristol Channel under the name of Kymry or fellow-countrymen, a name still surviving in Cumberland and in the Latin name for Wales. Under the pressure of common foes, they developed a feeling of unity and of national spirit which retarded the western advance of the English, the Dane, and the Norman for centuries. A literature also sprang up which has not as yet received the attention it deserves. According to Rhys, the earliest of the native rulers was Cunedda, probably with Roman blood in his veins, and probably the military chief left in command of the north at the departure of the Roman troops. His capital was Carlisle, and his retinue on the Roman wall consisted of 900 horse. His power as *Dux Britanniarum*, or in Welsh *Gwledig*, ruler or prince, extended as far south as the Bristol Channel, and was so firmly established that it passed to his descendants, who fought with the English, and the leadership remained in his family till the conquest of Cad-

wallon by Oswald in the battle of Hevenfield in A.D. 635. It is worthy of note that the English title of Bretwalda, or Wielder of Rule of Britain, is the exact equivalent of the Welsh Gwledig.

The fight of the Kymry against the English was carried on with singular pertinacity, and the whole of the West from the Lower Severn to the Roman wall remained Welsh till the year A.D. 613, when Æthelfrith, of Northumbria, marched along the line of the Trent on the fortress of Chester (Deva). The covering army of Welsh was defeated, and Chester was so ruthlessly destroyed that it lay desolate for nearly three centuries. This defeat placed all the low country between the Dee and the lakes at the feet of the victors, and close upon it the plains of Cheshire and of Lancashire, hitherto Welsh, became English, and the tribe of Warings founded Warrington. The Northumbrian conquest was consolidated by the reduction of the district round Leeds, and the

wooded area of the Pennine chain by Eadwine in A.D. 617, and was extended as far as Mona, henceforth called Anglesea, and the Isle of Man.

The battle of Chester was decisive of the contest for the supremacy of this island between the English and the Welsh, and from this time the western advance of the English was retarded quite as much by their own rivalries as by the arms of their hereditary foes. Northern Lancashire and the lake country were conquered by Ecgfrith in A.D. 670-75, and the rest of the Welsh kingdom of Strathclyde in the valley of the Clyde in A.D. 756. The victories of Offa removed the Mercia boundary westwards as far as the dyke known by his name, and extending from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Dee. The whole of Shropshire and a large part of Hereford became England. The English conquest of South Britain does not concern us. It is sufficient to note that there was a Welsh quarter in Exeter in A.D.

876, and that the Welsh west of the Tamar passed under the rule of Æthelstan before the middle of the tenth century.

4.—The Welsh Element in England.

The question as to how far the Welsh people were displaced in England finds its answer in the facts that the history of some of the English cities has been continuous from the Roman time down to to-day, that the two peoples were fused together by marriage, and that the Welsh element is strongly marked in the present population of Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Dorset, Devon, and elsewhere. The war between English and Welsh lost its ferocity when the English became Christian, and quarter was given in battle. Alliances were made from time to time between them against a common foe, such, for example, as that between Cadwallon and Penda against Eadwine of Northumbria. It is clear, therefore, that the Welsh have contributed

an important element to the ethnology of England. The fact that they have not left a distinctive mark in the English tongue is explained by Rhys by the fact that the Welsh spoke Latin, which is largely represented in English. The work of Dane and Norman in Wales and the great influence which the Welsh have exercised in making Great Britain what she is must be reserved for a concluding article.

IV.

THE UNION OF WALES WITH ENGLAND.

We saw in the last article that the fall of the great fortress of Chester in A.D. 613 was followed by the Anglian conquest of the lowlands of the Dee, the Mersey, and the Ribble, and of Anglesey, and that the western advance of the English was, on the whole, steadily maintained until in the latter half of the eighth century the line of Offa's Dyke divided Wales—our Wales, in the main—from England. The Welsh (Kymry) of Strathclyde passed under the power of the English about the same time, and what was left of West Wales, in Devon and Cornwall, in the first half of the tenth century. Wales alone survived as a political division, ruled over by its own princes of the house of Cunedda, with the title of Rex Brittonum, until 1090,

when Rhys ap Tudor was slain in battle. From that time no Welsh leader aspired to a higher title than the Prince of Wales, a title which finally became vested in the Royal family of England in the person of Edward II. in 1307.

1.—The English, Danes, and Normans in Wales.

We must now consider the additions to the ethnology of Wales which were made in this long, obscure, and troublous period. In the first place, an English settlement took place at the mouth of the Dee and at least as far along the low-lying land as Anglesey. In the second place, the Northmen (Danes and Norwegians) established themselves in the district of Wirral, and used the old Roman fortress of Chester, and the harbours of the Dee and of the Mersey (Birkenhead), as a base from which they attacked the English until Chester, till then in ruins, was restored and fortified by Æthelflæd, "the Lady of the Mercians," sister of Alfred.

The names Orme's Head, Stack, Skerries, and Priestholme show their familiarity with the coast of North Wales, which suffered much from their ravages. In South Wales they made a settlement in the extreme west of Pembroke, where they founded Tenby, Milford, and Fishguard, and they also occupied in force the whole of the Welsh shores of the Bristol Channel, founding Swansea (Sweyns eye—*island*) and other towns. This invasion of Wales by the Danes and Northmen was followed in the course of the eleventh and twelfth centuries by the Norman settlement. William the Conqueror girdled Wales with great earldoms, and the Norman adventurers had a license to seize what they could of the land. Robert of Rhuddlan established himself in the Vale of Clwyd, and ruled over the adjacent district. From Chester, Hugh the Wolf harried Flintshire; from Shrewsbury, Robert de Belesme mastered the land as far at least as the borders of Montgomeryshire. Roger of Montgomery established

himself in the place called after his name, and extended his power far up the line of the Severn. Monmouth and Abergavenny and Brecknock were seized. A little later, in the days of Henry I., the Earl of Gloucester, Robert Fitz-Hamo, conquered Glamorgan, and divided it among his followers. A body of Flemings had established themselves in Pembrokeshire in the days of William the Conqueror, and were joined by numbers of their countrymen in 1108, "well versed in commerce and woollen manufactories," and equally fitted for the plough or the sword. They are still occupiers of the soil of the district of Pembroke, Haverfordwest, and Tenby, without having learned the Welsh tongue or having lost all traces of their ancestry. The final incorporation of the Welsh and the English into one and the same people, with common interests and common foes, may be said to have ended with the division of the Principality of Wales into shires. From that time to the present day

the inhabitants of England and Wales have become more and more united together by ties of blood and identity of feeling.

2.—Work done by Welsh for the Common Weal.

Let us now examine what the Welsh have done for the common weal. In the first place they have contributed to the national character the romantic element, an appreciation of natural beauty, and a tenderness which, united with the severe and stern qualities of the English, have found their noblest fruits in the immortal works of William Shakspeare. If we pass to individual cases, the play of fancy in the older Welsh poets, and the spirit of the Welsh legends found expression in the first half of the twelfth century in the history of the Britons, by Geoffroy, Archdeacon of Monmouth, and afterwards Bishop of St. Asaph, who was the first historical novelist in the west. In the latter half of this century we have to notice Gerald de Barri, born in 1146,

in Manorbeer Castle, Norman on his father's side, and nephew on his mother's side of Rhys ap Theodor, a Welsh prince.

Gerald was one of the brightest ornaments of his time, equally great as a scholar, as a divine, and as a patriot. He was educated at Paris, and after refusing a Professorship of Canon Law in the Academy, he administered the bishopric of St. David's for many years, and fought against the abuses of the Church in Wales, and in the Court of Henry II., and in Rome before Pope Innocent III. "Had he not," said Henry II., "been born in Wales and so nearly allied to its princes and chieftains, and especially to Prince Rhys, I would have loaded him with ecclesiastical benefices and preferred him to the highest honours." His account of his journeys in Wales in preaching the first crusade, and in Ireland along with Prince John, are the two most important historical works relating to these lands in the twelfth century. His noble motto, "*Non sibi sed patriæ natus*,"—"Born not for himself

but for his country"—both English and Welsh, may well be taken to heart by the lawless party in modern politics, who wish to split up the realm into a group of rival and competing communities.

In the thirteenth century the name of Llewellyn ap Gryffydd stands out among the names of Welsh heroes, the last of the Welsh Princes bearing rule, and the friend and ally of Simon de Montfort in his struggle with the King for the freedom of the people, not only of Wales but of England. In the fourteenth century the Welsh fought side by side with the English in their foreign wars, and shared the honours of Crecy along with the English knights and archers. Since that time whenever a blow has been struck for the honour of their common country the Welsh have been represented. Nor have they been without a due share of the government of the United Kingdom. The battle of Bosworth placed a lineal descendant of a Welsh Prince on the English throne, and

established one of the strongest dynasties that ever ruled in this realm—Henry VII., Henry VIII., and Elizabeth—a dynasty that is still represented in our Sovereign Lady the Queen.

It is clear, therefore, that “the gallant little Wales” of Mr. Gladstone has not only contributed to the good of the nation in a conspicuous manner, but has had her share, and—looking at her size—more than her share, in the government not only of Wales but of England. In matters of education she has been specially favoured. During the last few years she has received from Mr. Gladstone large grants of money in aid of her colleges, which were denied to similar institutions in Lancashire.

3.—The Fusion of Races into one Nation.

We have seen that in Wales, and especially in South Wales, the Normans and English freely mingled with the Welsh, and became one people before the end of the thirteenth

century. The Welsh chieftains gradually passed into the position of lords doing homage to the English crown. This fusion of the English and Welsh has been going on ever since, to the mutual advantage of both. To attempt to stop or hinder it at the present time by a grouping together of the Welsh counties on the ground of race, is as futile, as it is mischievous to both. The only difference in blood between the inhabitants of England and Wales is that there are more English in the former than in the latter. The people are composed of the same race elements in both, and only differ from each other in the proportion in which the elements are mingled. It is even very probable that there is more Celtic blood in England than in Wales, looking at the large Welsh population of Liverpool, Chester, Manchester, Birmingham, Gloucester, Worcester, and Bristol, and the large infusion of Welsh blood in the English counties. The Celtic element is, however, more concentrated in Wales, and especially in the hilly districts,

whither the Welsh tongue has retreated before the advance of the railways and the closer intercourse with England. To attempt to revive an antagonism between English and Welsh, which has been dead since the Wars of the Barons, and to develop an anti-English feeling in Wales, for the sake of bolstering up the Gladstonian scheme of Home Rule in Ireland, is as unpatriotic as it is idle. There is no race antagonism in Wales, unless it be between the Welsh and Irish labourers. Nor is there any reason why the shires now forming "Gallant little Wales" should be dealt with in any other fashion than the English shires. The bond of union and interest between Pembroke, Glamorgan, and the English districts nearest to them, is far closer than that between them and the Welsh-speaking farmers of Snowdonia. The real capitals of Wales, and especially North Wales, are not in Wales, but on the English banks of the Severn and the Dee, on the Mersey, and on the Irwell.

We have examined in these articles the place of the Welsh in the history of Britain, and we have seen how Welsh and English were gradually fused into one nation, working for the common good and living under equal laws. The present inhabitants of Wales have shown no sign that they wish to be more isolated from England than they are of necessity from their geographical position. They are not likely to submit to political vivisection, or to lend themselves to an intrigue to further the ends of Irish conspiracy against the British Government. They do not want home rule other than that of the English counties. If they ask for it, they will have to bring forward a better reason than that of race.

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